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STATE NORMAL SCHOOLS OF MASSACHUSETTS.

THE Normal School system of Massachusetts may now be said to have its history. It is nearly twenty years since it was first initiated by the establishment of two schools, and the number has since been increased to four. Commencing under auspices somewhat doubtful, certainly not wholly cheering, with a narrow-minded, illiberal prejudice obtruding itself, on the one hand, and prophesying failure; and with the cordial sympathy and the highest, perhaps extravagant, expectations of men of progressive tendencies on the other, those schools have labored on, receiving a fair patronage and the bounty of the Commonwealth,—the latter not very lavishly, however,—until they have worked out for themselves a well-earned position among the educational institutions and interests of the State. Their history and the work which they propose to do are worthy of examination. Everything pertaining to the education of teachers, and to the elevation of their profession, has, in these times, an absorbing, a vital interest. The public are persistent in their demands for teachers of higher qualifications and more extended culture, while teachers themselves, perceiving that their vocation is becoming better recognized as a distinct, honorable, and fairly-paid calling, are evidently aiming at greater attainments.

That the instructor of youth needs, in order to ensure fidelity and success in the school-room, qualifications of a high order, and a breadth of culture equal to the capacity of the human mind

to receive, cannot be seriously doubted. We say seriously ; we mean with an intelligent appreciation of the nature of the teacher's labor. There are those, it is true, who maintain that a person who has a "gift" for teaching, will march on to success, independent of instruction from Normal Schools, or any other schools. Now we admit that there are some people who, from their peculiar endowments, their tastes, and their early formed mental habits, seem admirably adapted to the business of teaching ; while others, not possessing those various qualities, have but a poor prospect of success. The former will be qualified to engage in that vocation with less preparation and training than the latter, and they will be more likely to succeed. Nevertheless we do not quite believe in *natural born teachers*. It has always seemed to us that those persons who are represented as being "turned out" by nature as finished teachers, without any preparation of their own, are, on the whole, mythical personages, existing only in the crude brains of those who see things as they fancy they might be, and not as they really are. And as such, we believe, does the common-sense, practical, philosophy of the world regard them. The same may be said of other callings. A man may have, for example, a fondness for mechanics and a facility in the use of tools, and may, without previous instruction, make a nail, a wheelbarrow, or a clock, and do his work passably well ; yet such a person is not the one to receive the confidence or generous patronage, when property or interests of moment are at stake. The world has still an impression, which it refuses to relinquish, that however creditable such a person may be as an untaught laborer, a regular apprenticeship, a knowledge of the *principles* of his trade and some practice under the eye of an adept mechanic, would make him a better workman. A natural aptitude in a person, for any occupation, does not make that person an expert, nor supersede the necessity of study and preparation. Practical men who have valuable horses to be shod do not send them to "natural" blacksmiths, but to those who have thoroughly learned their business and all its processes ; watches and chronometers are not entrusted for repairs to tinkers who take up the business of their own accord ; nor is the command of a steamboat given to a person merely because he is supposed to

have decided hydropathic tendencies. When a person is sought for any post of importance, the first and leading inquiry is, Does he understand his business, and is he familiar with its whole routine? — or, in sailor parlance, Does he understand every rope in the ship?

Success is not the result of chance; it is not luck, if, indeed, there is any such thing as luck, which we venture to doubt. Those who arrive at success in any of the callings of life have been *schooled* in the preparation for those labors which are ever the price at which success is purchased. That preparation may not have been a professional one; it may have been out of sight, unknown to the world; but a preparation *somewhere* there has been. There are some persons whose views of the duties of life are so earnest, and whose perseverance in surmounting obstacles is so marked, that they will make each day of life itself a school of preparation for its subsequent duties. And those teachers who seem to have but little preparation for their work, and yet enter at once upon a successful career, (though such cases are very rare,) are, in most instances, persons who have been surrounded and moulded by influences and circumstances peculiarly favorable for the development of those abilities and those traits of character which are so serviceable and so essential to the teacher. To say that such persons have succeeded without making an effort to attain success, would be far short of a true statement of the facts in the case. Among teachers of ripe experience, those who have spent the better part of a lifetime in the school-room, it would be difficult to find one who would not express his regrets that he had not had more preparation before he entered upon the active duties of his profession. The idea that a teacher needs to know no more than he is required to teach, and that he will, in all cases, be able to impart whatever he knows, is absurd, and has done infinite mischief to the cause of education, by encouraging incompetent persons to undertake the instruction of schools without any proper appreciation of the work they are required to perform. The teacher must not only be proficient in what he is expected to teach, but he needs an acquaintance with almost every fact and kindred branch of knowledge, for the purpose of illustration and explanation. It often requires much wisdom and

skill to make even simple truths plain to the understandings of the young. Indeed, this whole matter of the qualifications of teachers may be included in a nutshell: Their sphere of duties is a most arduous, difficult, and responsible one; requiring an ability to understand, and to measure the powers of the human mind, and to guide and shape them in their development and training. The better they are qualified for that sphere, the nearer they will come to an honorable and successful discharge of their duties.

As the community expect the physician to have a professional preparation for his ministry at the bedside; the lawyer to be versed in the principles and lore of his profession; the commander of a vessel to be conversant with navigation and the routine of the ship, — so it expects, and has a right to expect, the teacher to be qualified for his vocation. The same principles of common sense which demand the former, must also admit not only the propriety, but the necessity, of the latter. On this point there can be, as we have remarked above, no real difference of opinion. How these qualifications are to be attained; whether home training, the common school, or the professional school, are most serviceable, are questions upon which people may and do differ, and that, too, we must allow, with equal honesty of opinion. But we are not now to discuss those questions. On the other hand, we return to the Massachusetts Normal Schools.

They had their origin in the deep-seated conviction in the public mind, that the cause of education was languishing for the want of a better preparation on the part of a greater portion of those who were doing its work. Perhaps no truer index to the tone of sentiment upon this subject, among the intelligent portion of the community at that time, can be given, than a remark made, in 1838, by a distinguished scholar and divine who knew and felt deeply the urgent demands of the cause. "We boast of our schools; but our schools do comparatively little, for want of educated instructors. Without good teaching, a school is but a name. We need an institution for the formation of better teachers; and until this step is taken, we can make no important progress. The most crying want in this Commonwealth is the want of accomplished teachers!"

These schools have not all been established for the same length of time. The oldest of the four, and indeed the oldest Normal School in America, was opened in July, 1839, at Lexington, under the charge of Rev. Cyrus Peirce, its first Principal. In 1844 it was removed to West Newton, whence, after a sojourn of about nine years, it was transferred, in 1853, to Framingham, its present location. The second school was commenced, — Professor Samuel P. Newman, Principal, — with temporary accommodations only, at Barre, in September, 1839. After an existence of something more than two years, it was suspended until September, 1844, when it was reopened at Westfield, where it seems to have secured a permanent home. The Bridgewater school, under the care of N. Tillinghast, was founded in 1840. Richard Edwards was the first Principal of the school at Salem, which is now only in its fourth year.

It will be seen that two of the schools have been somewhat migratory. Whether the practice of "boarding round," so common of yore, and still kept up in some sections of the country, was one of the *experiences* that the managers of the schools acquired in early life, and which gave them such a fondness for itineracy as to favor these removals; or whether they regarded such removals as a practical method of preparing teachers for their labors in the "rural districts," we will not attempt a conjecture.

The Catalogues of the schools are not, in all respects, complete. The names of the present Principals, the whole number educated, the graduates, and the present number in each school, are given below:

	Principals.	Whole number.	Graduates.	Present number.
Framingham, . . .	George N. Bigelow, . . .	1,003	695	70
Westfield, . . .	J. W. Dickinson, . . .	1,143	*449	115
Bridgewater, . . .	Marshall Conant, . . .	1,035	720	59
Salem, . . .	Alpheus Crosby, . . .	284	106	103
		<hr/> 3,465	<hr/> 1,970	<hr/> 347

* The course of study and present system of graduation was not adopted at Westfield until 1854. Since that time, 111 have graduated. Previous to that year, some 900 or more pupils had been connected with the institution for different periods, varying from one to fifty months. How many of that number completed a course of study equal to the present graduating course, it would be difficult to ascertain.

From the aggregate above it will be seen that 3,465 persons have received, more or less, special preparation for teaching. A very respectable array of educators, surely! Of this number, 1,970 have completed the prescribed course, leaving out of the account the Westfield school previous to the year 1844. Of the number 347, at present (February, 1858,) connected with the schools, 25 are from other States than Massachusetts, leaving 322 belonging to this State. Owing to the present universal financial embarrassment which affects all classes and interests in the community, this number is doubtless smaller than it would be in a period of usual prosperity. The number furnished by each county is shown by the following table:

Essex,	80	Berkshire,	14
Middlesex,	64	Franklin,	10
Worcester,	40	Bristol,	8
Hampden,	37	Barnstable,	7
Hampshire,	22	Suffolk,	4
Norfolk,	17	Nantucket,	3
Plymouth,	15	Dukes,	1

The ratio of the pupils, thus furnished, to the population, is given below, the population of 1855 being used in the estimate:

	Pupil.	Inhabitants.		Pupil.	Inhabitants.
Hampden,	1	for every 1,482	Berkshire,	1	for every 3,770
Hampshire,	1	" 1,612	Plymouth,	1	" 4,100
Essex,	1	" 1,887	Dukes,	1	" 4,401
Nantucket,	1	" 2,684	Barnstable,	1	" 5,063
Middlesex,	1	" 3,032	Norfolk,	1	" 5,555
Franklin,	1	" 3,165	Bristol,	1	" 10,928
Worcester,	1	" 3,738	Suffolk,	1	" 42,954

The ratio for the State is 1 pupil for 3,517 inhabitants.

By the last published returns of the Secretary of the Board of Education, it appears that in the winter of 1856-7, there were employed 4,958 teachers in the common schools of the State. Assuming that the number is the same for the present winter, (it is probably a little larger,) the ratio of the pupils in the Normal Schools to the whole number engaged in teaching is as 1 to 15; that is, for every person now enjoying the bounty of the State in her Normal Schools, the State employs and has the benefit of the labors of 15 teachers. The ratio by counties is worthy of examination:

	Pupil.	Teachers employed.		Pupil.	Teachers employed.
Essex has .	1 for every	6.7	Berkshire has .	1 for every	21.
Hampden, .	1	8.	Norfolk, . . .	1	22.5
Nantucket, .	1	10.6	Franklin, . . .	1	26.
Hampshire, .	1	10.8	Dukes,	1	28.
Middlesex, .	1	12.	Barnstable, . .	1	28.5
Worcester, .	1	18.	Bristol,	1	52.6
Plymouth, .	1	19.6	Suffolk,	1	121.

It should be understood that the above tables are given expressly to show the patronage which the people of Massachusetts are now extending to her own Normal Schools; and not to show what they are doing, as a whole, for the education and preparation of teachers. Had we the latter object in view, which in reality is no part of our present purpose, we should have to take into consideration what is done in our colleges, our numerous high schools, academies, and private schools; from which many go forth yearly as instructors, and in many of which special attention is given to the preparation of teachers. Previous to the establishment of Normal Schools, many of our academies were, in the language of an able educator, the grand "nurseries" from which our schools received their instructors. Their efficiency in this same work is still considerable.

In the ratio of Normal pupils to the population, Hampden County leads the State. In the other counties the ratio is far from uniform; the difference being attributable, probably, in many cases, to a large proportion of foreign population, remoteness from the Normal Schools, the occupation of the people, and the character of their own schools. Various other considerations also may, and doubtless do, have their influence. Suffolk County, which has nearly one-seventh of the population of the State, has only four Normal pupils, or about one-eightieth of the whole, — one for every 43,000 inhabitants, and one for every 121 teachers employed; yet this county is by no means the lowest in the list, in respect to what is done for the education of teachers, if we take into account other means employed outside of the State Normal Schools. The city of Boston constitutes nearly the entire county. A large commercial city, with its din of excitement and its great variety of flattering inducements for active and lucrative employment, is not the place in which we should naturally

expect to find a large number of young men who, under all the circumstances, would enter upon school teaching as a profession. But for those who are so inclined, there are, in the city, the English, and the Latin High Schools, free to all young men; and although they are not Normal Schools, it is probable that they have a better, and especially a more practical, course of study for a candidate for teaching, than any New England college furnished forty years since. Young ladies, the proportion of whom as teachers is every year increasing, have still better advantages. The Girls' High School, Mr. Wm. H. Seavey, Principal, is also a Normal School for the city, with a regular course for three years. Of the classes which enter this school yearly, varying from 70 to 100 in number, one-half do so with the intention of becoming teachers; and we believe that about the same ratio actually enter schools as teachers when they leave. Most of them are qualified for teachers, and can find occupation as such in the city at the end of the second year of the course.

The work which these schools purpose to do, is, and should be, mostly of a professional* character. A review of the common fundamental branches will of course be attended to, but a knowledge of those branches must be previously acquired. Their object is to furnish to those who resort to them, special preparation for teaching, and not the means of "acquiring an education," in the ordinary acceptation of that expression. In this respect we think they have been embarrassed somewhat, in not being able to confine their efforts wholly to their legitimate business. Many have entered the schools without the qualifications prerequisite to be benefited by Normal training. To supply this deficiency requires labor that ought to be done elsewhere. They are obliged to divide the time between laying the foundation and erecting the superstructure, while the former ought to have been laid previously, that their labors might be wholly devoted to the latter.

The Theory and Practice of Teaching is one of the prominent departments of Normal School labor. Teaching is an art, and a peculiar one. It matters not how well informed the teacher may

* The term *Normal*, of Latin origin, signifies law, or rule; pattern and model; and was probably used because the rules of teaching were to be learned at such schools; and also because they were to be model schools for others.

be; if he is wanting in the ability to convey clearly his ideas to others, and to reveal to the pupil the processes of acquiring knowledge and developing the mind, his best efforts, even, will be but a failure. In addition to a thorough knowledge of what he is to teach, he must know the powers of the pupil, and the kind of discipline to which those powers have been subjected; he must know how to correct, effectually, errors in knowledge and in training; how to gain access to mind — mild undisciplined, or perhaps badly taught; how to lead a pupil to a correct understanding of his own powers, and the best method of using them; how to draw out the mind in a way that shall give it strength, as well as enlargement; how to secure accuracy in processes and results; and he must understand, philosophically, the laws of development and growth, both of body and mind, and be able to adapt his instructions, by ever varying modes and processes, to the different capacities and circumstances of those under his care.

Not less in importance is the art of governing — of School Management. Schools are not governed by force, nor by the rod; though the latter cannot always be dispensed with. A hearty devotion to the business, and an ability to read the character of pupils, and the motives which lie behind their actions, are essential, but not wholly sufficient. The teacher must learn how to guide the exuberance of youth, to correct the careless and wayward, and to restrain the disobedient and vicious; how to be mild, yet firm; how to govern according to circumstances, and yet be unyielding; how to cultivate in the pupil self-reliance, conscientiousness in the discharge of every duty, respect towards superiors, obedience towards rightful authority, civility and kindness to all; and how to lead the youthful mind in the right way, and to inspire it with correct and exalted sentiments in regard to life and its whole sum of duty. To give the teacher this power is one of the special objects of professional Normal Schools; and it surely is a province in which they have abundant labor to perform, — a labor for which the limited time of their usual course is, we imagine, quite insufficient. Three terms only — one year and a half — are *required*, though provision is made for a course of three years for such as may desire it. If the teachers in these departments of Normal School instruction are persons of skill and

of experience, they have it in their power to add much to the efficiency of young teachers, by unfolding and commending to their special notice the principles and methods to which we have alluded above.

In regard to the success of our Normal Schools, the estimation in which they are held at present by the community, and by educators especially, renders it unnecessary to raise a question. From their commencement they have never been regarded with more favor, nor more highly appreciated than at this present time. Their examinations and graduating exercises are occurring as we write this, and are giving the highest satisfaction.

No one will attempt to maintain that a teacher may not be educated elsewhere; many of our eminent teachers have an experience greater than the age of our oldest Normal Schools; for such schools were unknown in this country when they received their preparatory training. Neither will it be claimed that every person of Normal education will, as a matter of course, be a successful teacher. Facts disprove it. Some do not succeed, but fail badly. Such cases, however, do not disparage the system, provided they are the exceptions only to the general rule of fair success in others. It is well known, we suppose, that these schools were started as an experiment. They have received a fair, but by no means a generous pecuniary support. The funds for their establishment and maintenance have been derived from individual gift, the voluntary contributions of the community in the immediate vicinity of their location, and from annual appropriations from the State. This aggregate, when compared with the funds and income for the support of colleges and universities, is meagre indeed. All literary institutions are expensive, or seem to be so; because that which is received in return for the expenditure is not of a nature to be estimated in dollars and cents. We have no means of knowing at this time the whole, or the *pro rata* expenditure for Normal teachers; nor do we care to know. The science of mathematics is never more degraded than when it is used to estimate, in a mere secular point of view, the pecuniary cost of an educated man. Of this, however, we are certain, — a well educated person, a carefully trained teacher, is worth to the world infinitely more than the cost of education.

Between three and four thousand persons have received Normal training, most of whom have labored in our own State. They have unquestionably done their work better than they would have done it without such training. There has been an improvement in our schools. The instruction and drill of the primary school are more thorough, and better; the elements of knowledge receive more attention; an improved classification enables the teacher to adapt his labors to a greater number; and all our schools are better governed than formerly. Normal Schools have certainly done their part, and a very considerable one too, in securing these desirable results. They, in connection with others, have done much to raise the standard of the teacher's qualifications. Teaching as a profession has been permitted to assert its claims to an equal rank with the other professions, and it has gradually been assuming that position in the public estimation which is due to its importance. This has been accomplished by a variety of agencies; by the manly, high-toned, and persistent efforts of leading teachers and educators; by the slow recognition of the teacher's true position, by a more enlightened public, and by the influence, direct and indirect, of Normal Schools. But it is not by statistics alone, nor by an enumeration of benefits thus far received, that we are to judge of their influence. The time has not yet arrived when the Commonwealth can close the balance sheet of her Normal Schools, and estimate the totality of that influence. Like the influence of many other educational agencies, though plainly appreciable, it belongs in part to the unwritten history of education, and also, and more especially, to the future. The water-ripple at our feet upon the sea-shore, started by the gentle wind which fans us gratefully, increases as it recedes from us, until in the distance it is lost to our view. But it ceases not, nor subsides when we turn from it. Onward with the swelling breeze, it imparts its influence to the yielding mass of the mighty ocean, until, with resistless momentum, it breaks upon some far-off, distant shore, causing the very earth to tremble, and adding its thundering crash and hoarse-sounding murmurs to the sublime music of Nature. Thus in time shall the influences of which we have spoken produce their mighty results. A. P. S.

THE STATE SCHOLARSHIPS.

MASSACHUSETTS is distinguished among other States for one peculiarity in her system of public instruction, which is the provision made by law for training candidates in her colleges for the profession of teaching. Forty scholarships, of one hundred dollars each, are supported by our noble Commonwealth. Several years have passed since their establishment, and we have watched with great interest the operation of the plans or rules whereby the funds of the State have been applied to an object so worthy in itself, and so vitally related, as it must be, to the progress of popular education.

Though the law which founded the State scholarships was passed in 1851, yet sufficient time has not been given us to determine the value of this measure as a matter of general policy. Only ten graduates are furnished in a year from the State foundations, and of those who have completed their college course, but few, as yet, can have reached their fields of professional service. It will take a long period to be able to determine from a summation of the actual results of the labors of the teachers thus trained, the value of the State scholarships as a means to promote the cause of public education. We shall look for the greatest share of benefits as coming in an incidental way ; in the honor thus paid to the teacher's calling, as a profession, and as furnishing an honorable stimulus to young men in their efforts to compete for the State scholarships, not only for the emolument, but for the honor which a successful competitor will be sure to receive. We believe the sanguine expectations of those who labored to establish the State scholarships will be ultimately realized, if the best means are employed to dispense the bounty of the State for the great object originally contemplated, which was the elevation of every grade of schools, by making it a special function of colleges and universities, to train men to become teachers in the lower grades. To be sure, the ultimate tendency of all schools, of every grade and character, must, if successful, in such a country as ours, be wholly and altogether popular in their uses ; but this tendency is not at once obvious to the popular mind. But when

the law of the State makes it necessary for the higher institutions to train teachers for every grade of the lower, then in respect to this one function, at least, all men can see that the highest seminaries are identified with the educational interests of the whole people.

While, then, we approve the general policy of the State in founding teachers' scholarships, we still think that some improvement can be made in the manner of selecting the candidates, who receive the bounty of the State. It is certainly a matter of interest to teachers, and to those who hope to be teachers, and especially to that class of young men who would desire to avail themselves of the advantages of a State scholarship, that the very best plan should be adopted to secure the best selection of incumbents on the State foundations, and in that way to do the most good to the public schools.

It is well known, that the candidates are now mostly selected by the Board of Education from certain districts into which the State is divided, in rotation. The number of districts is thirty-two, from one-fourth of which a candidate is annually appointed, while two are taken from the State at large, thus making ten scholarships per annum, and forty for the period of the four years of the college course.

If the candidate is recommended by the Board of Education, he enters college with the bounty of the State pledged beforehand to the amount of one hundred dollars per annum, till he graduates. If the candidate fails in the conditions required, and a vacancy for any cause occurs, it must be filled from the same district, for the remainder of the unexpired term of four years, by a candidate of the same college standing as that of the person whose place is left vacant. These arrangements are made on the ground that the right of appointment inheres in a certain district, and no district, as such, can, at any one time, be entitled to more than one beneficiary.

Our objections to the present plan, are chiefly against the method of appointment by districts. We are in favor of the election of the whole number of the ten scholarships annually appointed from the State at large, in the same manner as the two who are at present thus selected.

We dislike the district system for any educational purposes whatever, if any better mode of diffusing the benefits of public instruction can be devised. We do not understand why any defined territory should have rights or privileges independent of the population therein residing. We are in favor of an equality of persons, not of places irrespective of persons in them.

The district system awards the State scholarships avowedly, and perhaps apparently, on grounds, which, at first sight, might seem to some, fair and equitable. But its results are not really so. The effect is rather to deprive three-fourths of all those young men of the State, who would wish for a chance, of enjoying the bounty of the State. Only one-fourth part of the population is embraced by the district system, because the circumstance of locality also determines the circumstance of time in receiving the benefit.

The fact, that districts may nominate an incumbent in rotation, once in four years, secures an opportunity to such as happen to be born in the lucky year; but those who are "born bad," and must fit for college in the three unlucky years, can never hope for an election to a scholarship, however good their claims in other respects may be. Nor does the State receive any benefit from the selection of candidates from a larger number than a fourth part of the whole number of young men, who are each year fitted for college. Those candidates, then, who are fitted in the unlucky years, are in precisely the same circumstances as though there were no State scholarships for the encouragement of the profession of teaching and the cause of public instruction.

We come to this conclusion, because we do not believe that as the system now is, young men who are ready for college will be affected by it in any other way, than as a purely fortuitous benefit may affect them. They will enter college when of proper age, and when duly fitted. They will not wait a year longer, nor enter college prematurely, in order to secure the chance of an election to a State scholarship.

But if the Board of Education should offer, each year, ten scholarships to all the young men of the State desirous to become professional teachers, we think, that such an offer would be effective as a real motive power, to give the right tendency to many

young men in their choice of a profession, while the reasonable prospect of the emoluments and honors of a State scholarship, would beget an honorable competition, which would be felt in all the preparatory schools, and produce the happiest results not only on those who might be so fortunate as to secure an election, but also on others, whose minds might thus be turned to the business of teaching as a useful and honorable occupation. But the present fortuitous system secures few of the advantages of such a competition, for a wise man never regards a fortuitous advantage as of great value in any calculation he may make for the future; especially in so practical a matter as the choice of a profession for life, or in providing the means for a liberal education with a view to a life profession.

The consideration, that a better class of incumbents would be selected, if taken every year from the whole State, irrespective of residence or birth-place, is, we think, one of the first importance. It is very important, in order to recommend the scholarship system to the State, that its beneficiaries in the different colleges be men of marked ability and prominence. Especially do we need such men for the profession of teaching. There is and has always been an impression that the vocation of the teacher is the one fitted for those college graduates who cannot succeed in the so-called learned professions. We hope this impression will soon be among the things that are past, but nothing will so soon remove it as the influence of those graduates on the State foundations, when they shall have proved their ability to serve the State in a career of honorable success. Then may we expect that young men will start from the outset of a course of liberal studies, as eager aspirants for the calling of the teacher, and not as if compelled to enter this profession by necessity.

Another consideration against the present system of district appointments may be urged, that the impelling causes which lead young men to a course of liberal studies for any of the learned professions, that of the teacher included, are not every where equally operative. Some localities, where the population is abundant, rarely furnish a college graduate, while some places, with a sparse population, are always represented in every college catalogue. As a general thing, we believe the ratio of patronage to

the higher seminaries is greater from the country than from the city; though in places with a large population, the facilities for preparation for college are far greater than in the country.

Still less is it possible to determine in what place or district of the State the best talent may be found, for the teacher's profession or for any other. The little town of Southampton has produced more college graduates than any other of its size in the State, and a great share of these have become ministers of the Gospel. This fact is due, undoubtedly, in some degree, to the commanding influence of one of its ministers, the late Rev. Vinson Gould, in favor of liberal education. We know not from what places the brightest lights in any of the professions may arise, and any systematic division of the State may fail to designate the worthiest candidates for the patronage of the State. Such a distribution of the emoluments of the State, then, should be made, as that the best candidates on the score of their own personal qualifications shall be secured, and in respect to whom the circumstances of birth or home residence, shall be regarded as of no account. The State really has no interest or concern as to the place where the best men originate, who are to serve in all the departments of public life. If half of the scholarships for the present year should be given to young men whose residence is in Hampden County, what objection could Worcester County, as such, reasonably make, if the worthiest applicants only were appointed?

If our colleges were similar in their object to the Military School at West Point, and if they were wholly supported from the public treasury, then the appointment of students to their privileges might be made after the example of the cadets at West Point. But the colleges are not schools for the training of any particular profession, and whatever emoluments belong to them should not depend upon other considerations than the personal merit of the recipients. This leads us to remark, by way of inference, that the credentials of the applicants for the State bounty should come from those persons best acquainted with their fitness for the vocation they seek to enter.

According to the present plan, the Board of Education determines upon the qualifications of the candidates before they enter college. It seems to us a better plan, that applicants should first

enter college, and then, after suitable probation, be recommended to the Board of Education by the Faculties of the different institutions, both in respect to scholarship and those qualities of character which are requisite to success in teaching. If a vacancy should occur in any instance, it could thus be promptly filled from those known to be suitable candidates. At present there is some danger that the recommendations and personal influence of interested persons may sometimes determine the annual appointments on other grounds than personal qualifications. We desire to see no relaxation of the conditions now prescribed, by which the incumbent of a State scholarship is entitled to receive its benefits. One of the conditions requires a term of service in the public schools equal to the time of the college course, or the time assistance is rendered. This is a reasonable requirement, and it seems a longer time could be demanded in justice.

In our review of the present scholarship system we have been influenced by no dissatisfaction with its ultimate objects, but rather by an earnest desire to promote those objects. We have had some fears lest those objects would fail to be understood by the public mind, and that conclusions might be drawn adverse to the entire system as a matter of general policy. Especially have we been apprehensive lest the facts that vacancies in the scholarships are not always promptly applied for, and that several now exist, might lead to misunderstanding and distrust as to their general utility. We were pained to notice, recently, in a journal of wide circulation and influence in the western part of the State, allusions to the facts now referred to; in which the assumption was taken, that the State scholarships were "going a begging" for applicants. This surely ought not to be; and if some changes in the mode of appointment could be made, so that they might present immediate inducements to the young men of the State to avail themselves of their advantages, then we believe that they would soon be regarded by all the community as the noblest feature of the Massachusetts system of public instruction. By their instrumentality the highest seminaries of learning in the land are made the direct almoners of good to all the lower grades of schools, in giving a liberal training to those who feel that the best preparation possible, is no more than the vocation of the teacher demands.

C. H.

EDUCATION OF THE HAND IN PENMANSHIP.

Of that august personage, a pedagogue in a district school, under whose inspection (and spectacles) we took our first lessons in the chirographic art, we have this distinct recollection : Whenever he announced the "time to write," and we were fairly at work with pen, rule, plummet, and copy, he seldom failed to add, with a good deal of emphasis, this special direction in regard to the exercise : "Let it be short, very short." A very judicious admonition indeed, and one that will apply equally well, perhaps, to any suggestions that may be made in regard to instruction in penmanship. At any rate we shall act in accordance with our appreciation of its appropriateness, and shall make this article short.

It is now quite common, and quite proper also, as it seems to us, for children to commence writing at an early age ; hence it devolves upon female teachers, in a great measure, to give the initiatory instruction in this branch, — a branch so variously, and, in many instances, so badly taught. The particular points to which the early teacher in this branch must give special attention, are mainly these : to aid the pupil in gaining a clear perception of the form of the letters to be made ; to train the muscles of the hand and arm, that the execution of their movements shall produce a character strictly in accordance with the perception of its form ; a knowledge of the elements of letters and their combination ; and the correction and prevention of bad habits in the position and movement of the fingers, hand, &c.

It is to the second of these particulars that we wish to call attention in this article — *the training of the muscles*. It should not be inferred, however, that we pass over the first, and neglect to notice the other two, on account of their trivial or minor importance. Far from it. But we propose to do one thing only at a time, and we select this because we think it seldom receives the attention it deserves ; and by many teachers, especially those who have themselves been badly taught, it is scarcely understood at all.

Neglect of an early and proper training of the muscles of the fingers, hand, and arm, will invariably result in giving the pupil

a stiff, awkward, and undesirable handwriting, and one the execution of which is always irksome and unsatisfactory to the writer. It is equally true that such a style may be corrected and improved in proportion to the cultivation of proper habits and movements of the muscles.

The first steps, the elementary processes, which are so universally and so justly acknowledged to be the most important in all branches, are particularly and emphatically so in penmanship; and most of all in the manual part of the exercise—the education of the hand. This is true by virtue of a physical law of the muscular system. It is vastly easier to train the muscles correctly than incorrectly, because a correct movement, such a movement as is required for good penmanship, is a free, easy, and natural one, and one readily acquired, for the reason that the muscles are by nature adapted to just such a movement. Strictly speaking, it is simply developing the natural powers of the muscles; and development always gives increased strength to those powers, and additional facility for varied and difficult movements. But a rigid, cramped, and spasmodic movement is always executed with more or less difficulty, for the reason that the muscles *are not adapted* to such a movement; and if the habit is acquired, it will always be done at the expense of a very irksome effort. Another important fact to be borne in mind here is, that in youth, while the muscles are pliant, cushioned in fat, and abundantly supplied with nervous stimulus and nutritious blood, their movements are executed easily and rapidly. Not that they can, without instruction, perform difficult and artistic movements with the pencil or pen, but they can easily be trained, and their movements will soon become a matter of habit. Later in life the muscles are not so tractable. Even good habits cannot be so easily acquired, and bad ones are corrected only with great difficulty—so great, indeed, that, in a majority of cases, they are not corrected at all. You may train the young sapling and the tender vine-shoot; but the sturdy tree yields only when broken, and the full-grown vine holds even the giant oak in its strong embraces. Here will be seen the propriety of beginning to write at an early age, when we can avail ourselves of this superiority of youthful muscle. The vast importance of correct instruction

at this time will also be seen, that there shall be in after life no necessity for unlearning or correcting, bad habits — a work, as we have said above, of so great difficulty.

In this matter of training the hand there is need of more specific instruction than teachers of writing in our common schools usually furnish. The directions frequently given are something like the following: "Keep the wrist and forearm free and unimpeded, let the fingers hold the pen lightly, and move easily and freely across the paper. In all cases follow the copy *exactly*." Now how are the little chubby hands, unused as yet to act with precision, and wholly undisciplined, to execute those movements which require the trained hand of an expert, perhaps of an artist? Such a requirement is simply absurd. "Be careful," says the teacher, "be careful; make no stray marks, and don't write fast." The whole spirit of this injunction to the pupil, at the outset, is calculated to discourage him and to "stiffen the knuckles." What is a stray mark in the first attempts at writing? Any slight departure from the copy may, we suppose, be so considered, if close imitation is the first thing insisted upon and expected. But imitation is to be attained only after the pupil has by instruction and practice become capable of it. A person may laboriously imitate a pattern without knowing much of the powers of the hand, the use of the pen, or the best way of doing it; and we have sometimes known pupils who would imitate a copy when we were sure they had learned but little or nothing of the art of writing. Again, must the pupil necessarily write slow? May not the movements of the pen be, comparatively speaking, rapid and quick? Are slow movements always enjoined in the mechanic arts, and in instrumental music?

The hand, if properly trained, is capable of executing rapid movements, even at an early stage of its education. If there is, beforehand, a clear conception of the letter, and the muscles are obedient to the will, the letter may be formed rapidly and accurately. If with an indefinite purpose, or scarcely no purpose at all, the pen is placed upon the paper, and after its movement is commenced a pause is made, to cast the eye to the copy to study its form and pattern, and then the pen is again started, blindly, as it were, or by way of experiment, of course all its movements

will be slow and uncertain, especially in their results. That rapidity in writing is desirable, none will deny. Those who are called upon to compose frequently and rapidly, and with a style of handwriting slow and difficult of execution, know what a hindrance a slow-moving and aching hand is to the current of thought. Many of our happiest spontaneous thoughts must be recorded at the instant they manifest themselves, or the train of ideas they would suggest is lost forever. A mechanical power in the hand equal to this current of ideas is absolutely necessary for profitable composition.

Rapidity of execution, therefore, in penmanship is, after legibility, the most important object to be secured. That it is attainable is no more than every professional or amateur teacher of penmanship maintains, and proves, if he is a skilful and successful instructor.

The old practice of giving pupils straight lines for the first copy is, we are happy to say, nearly obsolete. To draw such a line is a feat that an artist does not felicitate himself upon until his experience has been considerable. To draw it for the sake of practice, merely, is poor policy indeed; for it needs considerable judgment to begin with, and requires but little variety of movement in the muscles. Commencing with a copy-book that must be preserved, and every character of which must be "shown to the committee and visitors," is, we think, equally objectionable. What, then, it may be asked, shall be the first exercise? We will answer that question.

Place a sheet of paper before the pupil, and with a pen execute a few plain movements, such as letters, parts of letters, or simple "flourishes." Do this in the presence of the pupil, and not at home in your own room, nor in the school-room after school is dismissed, where copies are usually "set." Let it be seen how *you* do it. Then require the pupil repeatedly to do the same, or something similar — not necessarily the same, however. Be very sparing of criticism, and let one object simply be before the mind, namely: to induce the pupil to use the pen freely and without restraint. If he is inclined to make other characters than the copy, or to make "flourishes" *ad libitum*, it is equally well. Not that a handwriting abounding in flourishes is desira-

ble. It is not. But the first movements of the pen will have very little to do with the style of the handwriting yet to be formed.

This exercise is to be considered as a *muscular discipline*. Insist upon its being a frequent one, and if it is done pretty much regardless of copy, or of the lines upon the paper, make no objection, provided there is discernible an improvement in the free swing of the muscles, and the off-hand movement of the pen. Young pupils often have a fancy for a particular letter, or letters, as written by a seatmate, or some friend, and are quite inclined to imitate them. Let it be done, and done freely. If the whole exercise is treated as one merely to give free play and development to the muscles, and is not cramped by arbitrary rules, there will soon be noticed an improvement, and one of which the pupil himself will be fully aware — a matter of no small moment, as consciousness of success stimulates to greater and more careful effort. Teachers cannot have failed to observe that this same principle and result of free and easy practice is almost daily exemplified in particular cases under their notice. In most schools there are pupils, more or less, who are much employed with the pen, or pencil, in writing, drawing, and scribbling. It is done at the expense of prodigious quantities of paper, and is frequently accompanied with an amount of scratching and noise that is quite annoying. Moreover, the practice is incessant, unless checked or prevented. But the result of the whole matter is, such pupils almost invariably acquire an easy, elegant, and uniform handwriting!

Let this practice of the muscles be continued until there has been acquired a facility of movement in the hand, and a command over it, that shall make the pupil fully conscious of considerable executive power with his pen. It may require many days, perhaps some weeks; but in all cases the skill acquired will amply repay the effort and time required for its attainment. This having been accomplished, the pupil is now prepared to give attention to the details of the elements of letters, and also their particular form, which he will soon be able to execute with great ease, rapidity, and exactness. Of this latter branch of the subject, however, it is not our present purpose to speak.

That a course of training like the above, thoroughly and judiciously practised, will accomplish a good purpose, we have the best of evidence — the evidence of entire success wherever it has been faithfully tried. Many who are now successfully testing their powers as skilful and rapid writers, in the office, counting-room, and elsewhere, can bear ample testimony to its utility, as a course eminently calculated to commence well the initiatory steps of accomplished penmanship.

A. P. S.

DRAWING AS A BRANCH OF EDUCATION.

THE AMERICAN DRAWING BOOK: *A Manual for the Amateur, and Basis of Study for the Professional Artist; especially adapted to the Use of Public and Private Schools, as well as Home Instruction.* By J. G. Chapman, N. A. New York: J. S. Redfield. 1858.

WHY is it that France has so long led the world in the matter of fashion? It is evidently owing to her conceded superiority in the tastefulness of her fabrics. We may laugh at our subservency, but the laugh is not on our side. It builds up enormous fortunes in Paris and the manufacturing centres of France, and ever and anon makes us shiver and shake in a commercial panic.

Every man of sense knows that "civility costs nothing," and "pays" immensely. Why is this, but because civility pleases us, — but because we prefer to look at a smiling, rather than a frowning face? Now it is the same in matters of taste. It costs no more to make an article attractive, than it does to make it ugly. As regards the profit, a "fancy price" has become a proverbial expression. "Dead stock" has a like powerful, though opposite significancy. It will soon reduce its proprietor's finances to its own mortuary condition.

The Frenchman understands this. His shopkeepers present their wares, whatever their character, in an attractive guise. The charcoal dealer festoons his little shop window with pine-knots, and piles up his little fagots of kindling wood in symmetrical

pyramids or columns. The apothecary does not gild the pill, but the pill-box.

The manufacturer proceeds on the same principle. He seeks for cunning designers as well as cunning artificers ; heads as well as hands. The government wisely lent its aid to the development of national skill by the establishment of Schools of Design. Pupils were sent to the Jardin des Plantes to copy flowers and foliage in the beautiful combinations of nature, their sketches being afterwards re-grouped and adapted to the requirements of the loom. They sat down before the classic forms of ancient art, that the foundry, the plaster mould, and the porcelain furnace might reproduce the graces of buried Pompeii, the noble outlines of Greece and Rome. Museums were formed like the Hotel de Cluny, an old mansion preserved from mediæval times and filled with the elaborately carved furniture of ancient days, to furnish models of design for workmen, as well as instruct and amuse the general public. The wealth which has flowed into the country from increased exportation has repaid in an almost incalculable degree the sums expended on these appliances of education.

The eye and hand of the mechanical artist, once instructed, did not confine its endeavors to reproduction merely. Original designs were soon offered and successfully introduced. All who read know the value of a permanently popular book. Few estimate, in availing themselves of the daily appliances of ease and comfort, that the pattern on the silk or calico, the shape and coloring of the table service, the varied hues of the carpet, represent similarly vast and tangible interests.

The perishable nature of almost every article of use and luxury, and the still more evanescent tenure of fashion, produce a constant demand for new patterns, and supply the successful artist with constant and remunerative employment. A very large number of persons, of both sexes, are thus provided with an honorable and pleasant means of support.

Within a few years past the English manufacturers have become aroused to the important advantages secured to their rivals across the Channel by the means we have stated. By their exertions, seconded by the press and that firm reliance of a good

cause in that country, the common sense of the people, Parliament granted the necessary material and legislative aid, and Schools of Design were established throughout the kingdom. Their beneficial effects are apparent in almost every branch of British industry.

We remember, some score of years ago, our college professor, while expatiating on the perfection of classic art, turning to the water pitcher on his table with the remark, "Imagine a Greek making a thing like that." The clay thus pointedly alluded to could not, if endued with speech, and filled with Dutch courage instead of pacific fluid, have made much of a defence. It was, notwithstanding its temperance uses, a pot-bellied affair, presenting, on a reduced scale, the classic shape of a barrel with its hoops in high relief. Send the janitor nowadays to a china shop supplied with the recent products, however cheap and simple, of the Staffordshire potteries, and he could hardly fail to return with a utensil which a Phidias might place in the hand of cup-filling Hebe.

A movement has been made in the direction of the English Schools of Design by the establishment of a professorship of drawing in the Free Academy of the city of New York. Similar instruction has been given in the free schools of other States, with successful results.

A good text-book in this, as in other studies, is of course a desideratum. The want is fully supplied in the work before us. Mr. Chapman has for many years occupied a prominent position as a successful artist. Some of his pictures, as, for example, the "Visit of St. Nicholas," have been among the most popular productions of the easel in this country. He is also known as one of our first book designers by his exquisite vignettes, scattered profusely through Harpers' Pictorial Bible.

His drawing-book is itself a choice work of art. It is the finest illustrated volume produced by an American since Darley's Margaret. An ample quarto page affords sufficient space for the large and freely handled designs scattered through the work. Many of these are the best copies from the antique which we are acquainted with in a generally accessible form. The head of the Apollo Belvidere is one of these. Some of Rembrandt's por-

traits, engraved in *fac-simile* of the original etchings, are equally successful. Several exquisite sketches of landscape are also given.

The work comprises, in addition to drawing, instruction in painting, modelling, and the various forms of engraving, and is thus of an eminently practical character. The universality of its aim is shown by its motto and opening sentence,—“Any one who can learn to write, can learn to draw.” We are almost inclined to regard a knowledge of drawing as essential as a knowledge of writing. It is essential to progress in almost every branch of skilled labor. Scarcely anything that stands on land or floats on sea can be made without its aid. In the report of a Parliamentary Commission appointed to take evidence in relation to the effects produced by the Schools of Design in England, we meet with several interesting anecdotes illustrating the practical advantages even of a slight knowledge of drawing. One of these narrates that a plaster moulder received an order to decorate the dome of a new church in process of erection some thirty miles distant from his workshops. The casts were completed and sent to the building. Scaffoldings were arranged, and everything was in readiness, when it was found that from a defect in the original designs, or some other cause, the casts would not fit. The mistake could be readily corrected if a drawing could be made and sent to the works. None of the men employed possessed the ability to do this. At last a boy engaged in some subordinate capacity stated that he knew a little about drawing, and, his services being readily accepted, a rude sketch was forthwith made and forwarded. The mistake was corrected and the works conducted to a successful termination without the loss of time or money, which would otherwise have been inevitable.

Great care has evidently been bestowed by engraver, printer, and publishers, as well as artist and author, in the production of this exquisite volume. The numerous wood cuts have been executed with great care, and printed with nicety. The text is in a large and clear character. Every requirement of such a work has been liberally met. We trust that it will be freely responded to by as liberal a sale.

MISTAKEN KINDNESS.

WELL-MEANT effort is not always productive of good results ; and injudicious and inexperienced teachers perform much labor that not only fails to be beneficial, but is often the source of great injury to pupils, and, not unfrequently, also to the teacher. That the best of motives prompt such labor, there can be no doubt ; but good intentions alone, even when followed up with much enthusiasm, are not always sufficient for a proper discharge of duty. Much discretion, and a far-seeing calculation of the consequences, and of the fitness of the means used for the end desired, are equally necessary.

It is a common practice, with many teachers, to perform much labor for the pupils, which the latter ought to do for themselves. Particularly is this the case in mathematics. A pupil is unable, perhaps, to perform an example in arithmetic, or algebra, and asks for assistance from the teacher. The latter, anxious, most probably, to manifest the utmost kindness to the pupil, and also to have the reputation of readiness and despatch, takes the book and slate and performs the example rapidly, naming all the steps and processes, and giving the reasons therefor in quick succession, and dismisses the pupil to his seat ; or perhaps elicits from him an affirmative answer to some such leading interrogatory as, "You understand it now, don't you?" Now this is mistaken kindness — well-meant, but very injudicious, nevertheless. If the difficulty is a real one, it is perfectly right and proper that assistance should be given. Against assistance judiciously rendered, there can be no reasonable objection. But the objection lies against giving it to the extent, or in the manner mentioned above, or in any similar way. In this case the pupil has had no part in solving the difficulty, and were the work to be immediately erased, it is doubtful if he would be able to perform the example, unless by the aid of a ready memory he might recall and repeat the processes in a mechanical, parrot-like manner. He is no better prepared to encounter or master the next difficult example ; has acquired no skill in clearing his way of obstacles ; and has not that unspeakable satisfaction and consciousness of increasing inward strength which follows a successful and triumphant

mastery of difficulties. Too weak to walk entirely alone, and yet needing but slight assistance, he has been taken up and carried along bodily, without being allowed to use and strengthen his limbs, upon which he must hereafter wholly rely in performing the journey of life. The teacher's course should have been entirely different. By a few skilful questions and indirect hints, the pupil should have been required to exercise his judgment upon the definite result desired, and the processes necessary to attain it. In such a manner he would be able to "work his own way," slowly, perhaps, but surely and understandingly. He would at every step gain skill and mental power, and cultivate self-reliance—a habit of mind worth infinitely more than any amount of mere information, so called.

This method of giving assistance will doubtless require more skill and time on the part of the teacher, than the former; but the teacher must consult the good of the pupil, and not his own ease. The pupil's mind can no more be developed and made to act with vigor and precision, without being severely and persistently exercised and taxed, than his body can be nourished and made to grow without digesting his own food.

Another instance of mistaken kindness is in plying the pupils with a multitude of questions to obtain an answer that ought to be given at once, and without any repetition or multiplication of questions. We have an example fresh in our memory.

At a recitation in English grammar, the sentence, "Draco wrote laws for the Athenians," is read, and a pupil is called up to parse *Draco*; when the following dialogue between the teacher and pupil ensues: "What part of speech is Draco?" "A noun." "What kind of a noun?" "Proper." "What number?" "Singular." "What gender?" "Masculine." "What person?" "Third." "What case?" "Nominative." "To what?" "Wrote." "Rule?" "The subject of a finite verb is put in the nominative case." Now it is hardly necessary to add, that even a beginner in grammar, after having heard a few examples, ought to be able to parse the word as follows, on being called upon by the teacher to do so:—"Draco is a proper noun, of the masculine gender, third person, singular number, and nominative case to wrote;" to be followed by the rule as above. This

practice of continual questioning encourages the pupil to "hold back," and to give answers no faster than they are literally drawn out. It prevents the formation of independent habits, is a foolish waste of time, and a useless and a very severe tax upon the lungs and health of the teacher.

It is unwise to allow pupils to help each other in the preparation of their lessons, unless in extreme cases. Such permission is very gratifying to pupils, but it encourages them to lean upon others, rather than upon themselves.

Bribing scholars to refrain from doing wrong, by promises of some little indulgences, such as "being excused early," and the like, is injudicious in the extreme. Unconditional and unreserved obedience and conformity to all the requirements and regulations of school are to be insisted upon as a matter of duty, without the promise of indulgence or special privileges in return. The question of commending and recording superior merit, is another and a different question altogether.

As neatness is an indispensable habit in every well-bred person, it becomes very properly a subject of school instruction, and one to be strictly regarded. It is, therefore, mistaken kindness in the teacher to go about the school-room after the pupils are dismissed, picking up pieces of paper and litter from the floor, and putting away books, pencils, and other articles left upon the desks. Pupils should be required to arrange their own desks, and be made responsible for the cleanliness of the floor under and about the same.

This list of well-meant but injudicious kindnesses might be made much longer, but the Resident Editor says that articles for the *Teacher* should not be long.

A. P. S.

EXCERPTA.

There is this difference between happiness and wisdom: he who thinks himself the happiest man, really is so; but he who thinks himself the wisest, is generally the greatest fool.

If you would be known, and not know, vegetate in a village; if you would know, and not be known, live in a city.

Those illustrious men who, like torches, have consumed themselves in order to enlighten others, have often lived unrewarded, and died unlamented. The tongues of after times have done them justice in one sense, but injustice in another. They have honored them with their praise, but they have disgraced them with their pity. They pity them because they missed present praise and temporal emolument ; things great indeed to the little, but little to the great. Shall we pity a hero, because, on the day of victory, he had sacrificed a meal ? Wisdom was their object, and that object they attained ; she was their exceeding great reward. Let us therefore honor such men if we can, and emulate them if we dare ; but let us bestow our pity not on them, but on ourselves, who have neither the merit to deserve renown, nor the magnanimity to despise it.

Anguish of mind has driven thousands to suicide ; anguish of body, but very few. This proves that the health of the mind is of far greater consequence than the health of the body, although both are deserving much more attention than either of them receive.

Memory is the friend of wit, but the treacherous ally of invention. There are many books that owe their success to two things ; the good memory of those who wrote them, and the bad memory of the readers.

It is with diseases of the mind as with those of the body ; we are half dead before we understand our disorder, and half cured when we do.

The wise man has his follies no less than the fool, but herein lies the difference :—the follies of the fool are known to the world, but are hidden from himself ; the follies of the wise are known to himself, but are hidden from the world.

If men praise your efforts, suspect their judgment ; if they censure them, suspect your own.

The excesses of our youth are drafts upon our old age, payable with interest, about thirty years after date.

Resident Editor's Department.

TEACHERS' WAGES.

THE following table exhibits the average amount of wages paid to teachers in the public schools of New England, according to the last annual reports on education:—

State.	Males, per month.	Females, per month.
Maine,	\$27.30	\$13.04
New Hampshire,	25.89	14.22
Vermont,	16.92*	7.64*
Massachusetts,	46.63	19.17
Rhode Island,	34.50	20.34
Connecticut,	29.00	17.25

In all cases given above, except in the State of Vermont, the price of board is included in the estimate. It will be seen that Massachusetts pays the most liberal wages to male teachers, while Rhode Island takes the lead in the amount given to females. In the Eleventh Annual Report of the Board of Education for this State, (1848) the amount paid male teachers, per month, including the value of board, was given as \$32.46; while female teachers received for similar services, \$13.60. Thus it will be seen that there has been an increase of \$14.17 in the compensation of the former, and of \$5.57 in that of the latter, per month, within the space of ten years. Of course, allowance must be made for the price of board, which is now generally twenty per cent. higher than at the time mentioned above.

Although this comparison shows, on the whole, a better appreciation than formerly of the labors of the teacher, it must be confessed that much remains to be done to place the pecuniary estimate of his services upon an equality with that generally attached to other learned professions.

LOVE OF CHILDREN.—Richter says, the man is to be shunned who does not love the society of children. Henry IV was passionately fond of them, and delighted in their gambols and little caprices. One day, when crawling round his room on all fours, on his hands and knees, with the Dauphin on his back, and the other children about him, urging the king to gallop in imitation of a

* Exclusive of the value of board.

horse, an ambassador suddenly entered, and surprised the royal family in the midst of their fun. Henry, without rising to his feet, asked, "Have you children, Mr. Ambassador?" "Yes, Sire." "In that case, I proceed with the sport," replied the king.

The Duke of Wellington was extremely fond of children, and was a general favorite with them. He enjoyed their gambols, took part in them, and was constantly presenting them with little keepsakes and presents.

Leibnitz used to pass months together in his study, engaged in his laborious investigations. At such times his only relaxation consisted in collecting about him in his study children of both sexes, whom he watched, and sometimes he took part in their frolics. Seated in his easy chair, he delighted to observe their lively movements, to listen to their conversation, and to observe their several dispositions; and when his soul had sufficiently enjoyed the innocent spectacle, he would dismiss the children with sweetmeats, and return to his studies with renewed energy.

Louis Racine says of his father, that he took part in all the children's sports. "I remember a procession we once had," says he, in his memories, "in which my sisters played the part of the clergy, I was the curate, and the author of *Athalie*, singing in chorus with us, carrying the cross.

Napoleon, like Wellington, was fond of children. He used to take the infant king of Rome in his arms, and standing in front of a mirror with him, there make the oddest grimaces in the glass. At breakfast he would take the child upon his knee, dip his finger in the sauce, and daub his face with it; the child's governess scolded, the Emperor laughed, and the child, almost always pleased, appeared to delight in the rough caresses of his father. Those who on such occasions had a favor to solicit from the Emperor were almost always sure of being favorably received.

LAST HOURS OF GOVERNOR MARCY. — The following interesting incidents we find in the *New York Evening Post*:

It was in his social and domestic life that Mr. Marcy appeared in his most inviting aspect. He loved his family, his children, his friends, and was never so happy as when, away from the burden of official cares, he could freely enter into the pleasures which their presence afforded.

Hence, during the last few weeks of his life, when he had a world-wide and honorable reputation, when his circumstances were such as to allow him to rest upon the honors which he had acquired, he was in his happiest condition. His old books and his old friends were his constant solace, and when he stopped at the antique, shaded hotel at Ballston, where he died, it was noticed how he would take his chair out under the wide-spreading elms and entertain his landlord and the plain, old-fashioned people who gathered about him, delighted with the pleasant stories which he told, and the philosophic humor, and shrewdness, and social feeling which twinkled in his keen, bright eye.

At other times he would return to his room, as his custom was, and taking up some favorite old author, (he rarely read modern literature,) Milton, Shakspeare, Hervey, among the poets; South, Barrow, or Robert Hall, among

divines; his French edition of Machiavel, (a favorite work, by the way, with Senator Seward,) or Bacon, among philosophic writings, would read until he fell asleep. And this, indeed, was the way in which he fell asleep on the noon of Independence Day. He had retired to his chamber, put his boots in the usual corner, put on his dressing-gown, and laid down with Knight's edition of Bacon's Essays — a small red quarto volume, with illustrations. When he was found, he was still on his bed, his eyes were quietly closed, on one side were the spectacles, on the other the well-remembered snuff-box, and upon his breast lay the book he so much loved — that immortal epitome of human wisdom — the Essays of Bacon, and over it clasped his hands, hugging it to his heart. Such was his final sleep — peaceful, serene, and worthy of so great a life — in the midst of the thunders which commemorate the birth-day of the nation whose fame and power he had done so much to uphold and extend.

What page it was on which the volume was opened I know not. Perhaps it was on that most appropriate passage where the great philosopher thus discourses of "Death:"

"A mind fixed and bent on somewhat that is good, doth avert the dolours of death; but above all, believe it, the sweetest canticle is '*nunc dimmittis*,' when a man hath obtained worthy ends and expectations."

In a recent speech in London, Mr. Charles Dickens spoke of the schools he liked, and of those he did not like. Of a school which he once attended, "the respected proprietor of which was by far the most ignorant man he ever had the pleasure to know," he said: "I do not like that sort of a school, because I never yet lost my ancient suspicion touching that curious coincidence that *the boy with four brothers to come, always got the prizes*." Of a school which he *did* like, he said: "It is a place of education, where, while the beautiful history of the Christian religion is daily taught, and while the life of that Divine Teacher, who himself took little children on his knees is daily studied, no sectarian ill-will or narrow human dogma is permitted to darken the face of the clear heaven which they disclose."

Mathematical.

QUESTION 10. A man dies leaving an estate of \$1100 to be divided among his three sons, aged respectively 13, 15, and 17 years, in such a manner that the share of each, placed at compound interest at five per cent. until he arrives at the age of twenty-one years, shall amount to the same sum. What is the share of each at the time of the father's death? An arithmetical solution required.

J. Q. A.

QUESTION 11. Given the three lines drawn from the vertices of a plane triangle to the centre of the inscribed circle, to find the radius of the circle and the sides of the triangle.

J. Q. A.

A PROPERTY OF NUMBERS EXPLAINED.

If in any number consisting wholly of integers, or wholly of decimals, or partly of each, the order of the figures is inverted, the difference between the result and the original number is divisible by 9 without a remainder. For example, $6951 - 1596 = 5355$ is divisible by 9.

The reason for this is as follows: It is a well-known principle in arithmetic, that, if any number is divided by 9, the remainder is the same as if the sum of the figures, independent of their local value, is divided by 9. Now the sum of the figures of each of the numbers given above is the same, viz., 21, which divided by 9 leaves 3 for a remainder. Each number, therefore, contains a certain number of nines, and the same remainder, 3. But, if we subtract a certain number of nines and 3 from a certain other number of nines and 3, the remainder will necessarily contain an exact number of nines, or in other words it will be divisible by 9. The particular value of the remainder will of course make no difference in the reasoning.

The same is true whatever be the order of the figures, and for the same reason. Thus the difference between any two of the following numbers, 123, 321, 213, 231, 132 and 312, is divisible by 9. The principle may be carried farther, for 9 will divide the difference between any two of the numbers, 15, 150, 51, 510, 5.01, 5.001, 1.005, &c. The only restriction is that the numbers shall contain the same significant figures.

The same thing may be shown algebraically. For example, let a, b, c, d , and e be the numbers of the digits of different orders. The number will then be $10^4a + 10^3b + 10^2c + 10d + e$; placing the digits in the order, c, a, e, b , and d , the resulting number is $10^4c + 10^3a + 10^2e + 10b + d$. Subtracting the latter from the former, we have $(10^4 - 10^3)a + (10^3 - 10)b - (10^4 - 10^2)c - (10^2 - 1)d + (10 - 1)e$; or, $10^3(10 - 1)a + 10(10^2 - 1)b - 10^2(10^2 - 1)c - (10^2 - 1)d + (10 - 1)e$; each term of which is evidently divisible by $10 - 1$, or 9, and therefore the whole quantity is so divisible.

T. S.

SOLUTION OF QUESTION 2.

[Five gamblers, A, B, C, D, and E, play together. First A loses to the others as much money as they each had; then B loses to the others as much as they each then had; then C loses to the others in the same manner; and so on successively. After they had all lost as described, it was found that each had \$32 left. How much money had each at first?]

It is required to generalize this problem in the fullest sense.]

Let the number of players be p , and denote the respective amounts with which they begin to play by x_1, x_2, \dots, x_p .

Let

$$s = x_1 + x_2 + x_3 + \dots + x_p,$$

and suppose they lose in the order of the notation, beginning with x_1 . By the problem, each one loses in succession to all the others m times as much as they already have, m being either integral or fractional. The party x_n will win

$n - 1$ games before losing. The first game he will win mx_n , and will have, therefore, after this game,

$$x_n + mx_n = (1 + m)x_n = Mx_n,$$

putting $1 + m = M$.

In general, then, a winning party will have M times as much as he had before winning this game. It follows that the x_n th player will have $M^{n-1}x_n$, after winning $n - 1$ games. The n th game he loses. But, since he has $M^{n-1}x_n$, all the others together must have $s - M^{n-1}x_n$; and, as he loses $m(s - M^{n-1}x_n)$, he will have left

$$M^{n-1}x_n - m(s - M^{n-1}x_n) = M^n x_n - ms.$$

That is, in general, a party who loses will have left M times what he had before losing, diminished by m times s .

Now n games have been played, and there are $p - n$ yet to play before all the p players shall have lost in succession; but these $p - n$ games the party x_n wins. He will have, therefore, at the end of the p games,

$$M^{p-n}(M^n x_n - ms);$$

and if we denote this amount by a_n , we have

$$M^{p-n}(M^n x_n - ms) = a_n;$$

or

$$(1) \quad x_n = \frac{a_n + ms M^{p-n}}{M^p} = \frac{a_n M^n + ms M^p}{M^{p+n}}$$

This formula is true whether the sums held by the different players at the end of the p games are equal or unequal. But if, as by the problem, they are to hold equal sums, a_n is constant. It will be observed that in this case the different values of x_n depend entirely upon M^{p-n} in the numerator; and, since $M > 1$, the value of x_n will be greatest for which M^{p-n} is greatest, that is, for $n = 1$. Hence the one who first loses must have the greatest sum at the beginning.

Giving n the values 1, 2, 3, &c., and taking the differences, we readily find

$$x_1 - x_2 = \frac{ms}{M^2};$$

$$x_2 - x_3 = \frac{ms}{M^3};$$

and so on to

$$x_{p-1} - x_p = \frac{ms}{M^p}.$$

Hence the differences of the sums held by each at the beginning, taken in the order of losing, must diminish in the ratio of $\frac{1}{M}$, in order to satisfy the final condition of equal sums.

Instead, however, of playing one round of games, in which each party loses once, and wins $p - 1$ times, it may be required to solve the problem for t rounds of games, each party losing t times and winning $t(p - 1)$ times.

We have already seen, that, at the end of the n th game, the party x_n has $M^n x_n - ms$. If they lose in the same order in the successive rounds of games as in the first, it is evident that the x_n th player, after losing the n th game, must

win $p - n$ on the first round, and $n - 1$ on the second round, before losing again; that is, he must win $p - n + n - 1 = p - 1$ games.

He will then have

$$M^{p-1} (M^n x_n - ms);$$

after losing the next game he will have left

$$M^p (M^n x_n - ms) - ms;$$

and after winning the $p - n$ remaining games of the second round he will have

$$M^{2p-n} (M^n x_n - ms) - ms M^{p-n} = a_n;$$

or

$$(2) \quad x_n = \frac{a_n M^n + ms (M^p + M^{2p})}{M^{2p+n}}.$$

Comparing this value of x_n for the second round with the value in (1) for the first round, we readily infer, that, after the t^{th} round,

$$\begin{aligned} x_n &= \frac{a_n M^n + ms (M^p + M^{2p} + M^{3p} + \dots + M^{tp})}{M^{tp+n}}, \\ &= \frac{a_n M^n (M^p - 1) + ms M^p (M^p - 1)}{M^{tp+n} (M^p - 1)}. \end{aligned}$$

When $t = 1$, this value of x_n becomes the same as in (1), as it should; and if we suppose a_n constant, and take the differences of the successive values of x_n , we shall find that they diminish in the ratio of $\frac{1}{M}$ as before. If in (1) we make

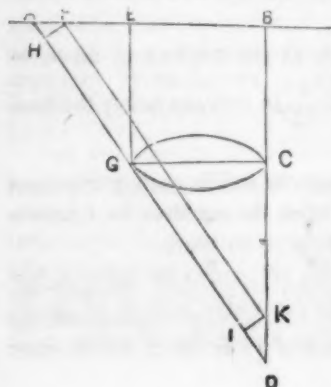
$a_n = 32$, $p = 5$, $s = 160$, $M = 2$, we find $x_1 = 81$, $x_2 = 41$, $x_3 = 21$, $x_4 = 11$, $x_5 = 6$. If in (2) we make $a_n = 32$, $p = 5$, $s = 160$, $M = 2$, $m = 1$, we find $x_1 = 82\frac{1}{2}$, $x_2 = 41\frac{9}{16}$, $x_3 = 20\frac{5}{8}$, $x_4 = 10\frac{1}{4}$, $x_5 = 5\frac{3}{8}$. J. D. R.

Several other solutions have been received, which will be noticed in a subsequent number. ED.

SOLUTION OF QUESTION 3.

[What is the length of the longest pump-log, 15 inches in diameter, that can be put into a well 3 feet in diameter, situated in a large room, the ceiling of which is 10 feet high?]

Not taking into account the diameter of the pump-barrel, this question is the same as Question 33 for 1857.



Call GE, the height of the room, a ; GC, the diameter of the well, b ; and FH, the diameter of the pump-log, c .

Now $AD = (a^{\frac{2}{3}} + b^{\frac{2}{3}})^{\frac{3}{2}}$, $AB = b^{\frac{1}{3}} (a^{\frac{2}{3}} + b^{\frac{2}{3}})$, and $BD = a^{\frac{1}{3}} (a^{\frac{2}{3}} + b^{\frac{2}{3}})$. (See solution second, page 76, to Question 33).

Again, the triangles ADB, AFH and FKB are respectively similar. Whence,

$$a^{\frac{1}{3}} (a^{\frac{2}{3}} + b^{\frac{2}{3}}) : (a^{\frac{2}{3}} + b^{\frac{2}{3}})^{\frac{3}{2}} :: c : AF =$$

$$\frac{c(a^{\frac{2}{3}} + b^{\frac{2}{3}})^{\frac{1}{2}}}{a^{\frac{1}{3}}}. \text{ Hence } FB = \frac{a^{\frac{1}{3}} b^{\frac{1}{3}} (a^{\frac{2}{3}} + b^{\frac{2}{3}}) - c (a^{\frac{2}{3}} + b^{\frac{2}{3}})^{\frac{1}{2}}}{a^{\frac{1}{3}}} = m.$$

$$\text{Also, } b^{\frac{1}{3}} (a^{\frac{2}{3}} + b^{\frac{2}{3}}) : m :: (a^{\frac{2}{3}} + b^{\frac{2}{3}})^{\frac{3}{2}} : FK = \frac{m (a^{\frac{2}{3}} + b^{\frac{2}{3}})^{\frac{1}{2}}}{b^{\frac{1}{3}}}.$$

$$\text{Substituting the value of } m, \text{ we have } FK = (a^{\frac{2}{3}} + b^{\frac{2}{3}})^{\frac{3}{2}} - \frac{c (a^{\frac{2}{3}} + b^{\frac{2}{3}})}{a^{\frac{1}{3}} b^{\frac{1}{3}}}.$$

The above is the general value for the length of the pump-log. In this particular case, $a = 10$, $b = 3$, and $c = 1\frac{1}{4}$.

Substituting these numbers in the formula, and performing the operations with the aid of logarithms, we have for the length of the log 14 feet, 8.6 inches.

M. C. S.

An ingenious solution has also been given by E. H., the proposer, who finds for the answer 14 feet, 9.86 inches.

ED.

Intelligence.

PLYMOUTH COUNTY TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION.—The sixteenth semiannual meeting of the Plymouth Co. Teachers' Association was held at Middleboro' Four Corners, Dec. 18th and 19th, 1857.

Wm. E. Sheldon, Esq., of East Abington, the President, having been unexpectedly called from the county, was unable to be present, and the duty of presiding devolved upon the first Vice President, A. P. Stone of Plymouth.

Rev. I. C. Thatcher, of Middleboro', was invited to address the throne of grace, after which the following Committees were appointed, viz.: On Criticism—Mr. Damon of Hingham, and Miss Verry of Plymouth. On Resolutions—Messrs. Darling of Bridgewater, Bates of Abington, and Dickerson of Plympton. Committee to ascertain the number in attendance—Miss Mace of Plymouth, and Mr. Buffington of Middleboro'. Committee to obtain signatures to the Constitution—Messrs. Thomas of Plymouth, Torrey of Weymouth, and Soule of Middleboro'.

Messrs. Noyes of Abington, Cornish of Plymouth, and Atwood of Wareham, were constituted a Committee to nominate officers for the ensuing year.

This Committee subsequently reported the following, all of whom were unanimously elected:—*For President*—A. P. Stone of Plymouth. *Vice-Presidents*—A. H. Soule of Middleboro', E. W. Dickerson of Plympton, and D. E. Damon of Hingham. *Secretary and Treasurer*—L. A. Darling of Bridgewater. *Executive Committee*—M. Conant of Bridgewater, J. W. P. Jenks of Middleboro', and Edward P. Bates of Abington.

On Friday afternoon, a lecture was delivered by Rev. Charles Hammond, Principal of Lawrence Academy, Groton, upon the "Objects, Methods and Results of Education." Education was defined as "the full and proper development of all the faculties of the mind, so as to bring them into subjection to the will." The lecturer thought that the *nature* of education should not be confounded with its *progress*. Most of the boasted improvements in education have their origin in confounding the *process* with the *result*. The scholar is not a good judge of the course of study which will be most

beneficial to him. The want of an inclination for a particular study is no reason for rejecting it. Inclination may influence in the choice of an avocation, but never in the choice of studies. Formerly the "Hill of Science" was more arduous than the Hill of Difficulty. The modern plan is to make the path of learning easy and pleasant. To accomplish this, one of two things must be done. Either Truth must *come down*, or the "Hill of Science" must be *graded* and a stationary engine placed at the top to draw up aspirants. The lecturer explained why the *teacher* is less appreciated than the *professional man*. "The *teacher*," said he, "is a universal blessing, and, like the rain and sunshine, fails to be appreciated because of the constant recurrence of the benefits. Whereas the *professional man* is employed only in emergencies, and, as a help in the time of emergency, attention is directed to him as a benefactor."

The lecture was an able production, containing sound views clearly and forcibly expressed. Mr. Hammond is in favor of thorough teaching, and of vigorous and effective discipline. In the evening, Rev. A. H. Quint, of Jamaica Plain, delivered a lecture upon "The Relation of Home and School Education." He thought the present need of the pupil to be *home instruction*. The responsibility of educating the child devolves upon the parent, and the teacher acts only as his agent. No teacher can expect to make moral beings of his pupils when they are taught immorality at home. The influence of *home* and *school* combined make the republic, not the school alone. A perfect coöperation and unity of sentiment should exist between the parent and teacher. The lecture was highly entertaining, being illustrated and interspersed throughout with anecdotes. It served to relieve the mind of the teacher of its burden of anxiety.

The morning session, on Saturday, was opened by prayer, by Rev. Mr. Bigelow of Middleboro'. In the course of the forenoon, Jonathan Kimball, Esq., Principal of the High School, Dorchester, delivered an interesting address upon "The Prerogatives of the Teacher." Every profession has its prerogatives. Those of the teacher are of a two-fold kind: first, those growing out of the relation of the teacher to the scholar; and second, those pertaining to the relations of the teacher to society. First, then, the teacher has a right to claim obedience from his pupils—a right not always conceded by the parent, but which the teacher should never yield. The second is a right to do things in his own way, both teaching and governing. A teacher should never *lose his individuality* by copying methods from others any further than to make those methods his own. His first prerogative with regard to society is his right to be placed pecuniarily above want and care, so that his whole energy may be devoted to his work. And the second, a right to use his influence in educational matters, especially in the construction of school houses and the selection of books. The duties of the teacher consist in the judicious use of the power placed in his hands, and a conscientious regard for all the claims which society has upon him. The lecture was eminently practical and finely illustrated. It was the prevailing opinion that we had never before been favored with three such excellent lectures at a single meeting of the Association.

The following topics were discussed at different stages of the meeting, during both days: "The Best Method of teaching Reading," and "The Advantages and Disadvantages of Oral Instruction." Also "The Topics of the Lectures." These discussions were quite spirited, and were constructed principally by Messrs. Dickerson of Plympton, Damon of Hingham, Thomas of Plymouth, Conant of Bridgewater, Marble of Duxbury, Kimball of Dorchester, Harvey of Plymouth, Burnett of Middleboro', Bates of Abington and Rev. Messrs. Rodman of Bridgewater, Quint of Jamaica Plain, Hammond of Groton, Thatcher of Middleboro', and Harrington of Rochester.

The Treasury was represented to be in a healthy condition. The committee on attendance reported the number present at 227. Resolutions were passed thanking the lecturers; the Old Colony and Fall River Railroad for a reduction of fare; the Glee Club, the local Committee, and the citizens of Middleboro' for their music and their generous hospitality. The meeting, on the whole, was a very successful one, and all left with a consciousness of having enjoyed a rich intellectual feast.

NATIONAL TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION.—The second meeting of this Association, which was organized at Philadelphia, last August, under flattering auspices, is to be held in Cincinnati, commencing on the 11th of August next. Lectures will be delivered by eminent teachers from various parts of the Union. Hon. John D. Philbrick, Superintendent of the Boston Schools, will speak for New England. The subjects for discussion will be announced in due season.

It is expected that free return tickets for persons attending the meeting will be obtained on the principal railroad routes.

The Cincinnati meeting promises to be one of the most interesting and important educational gatherings ever held in this country. We are glad to learn that a goodly number of New England teachers have already expressed their intention to be present. We earnestly hope that those Massachusetts teachers who propose to expend a portion of their surplus income in summer travels, will bear in mind the great convention at Cincinnati. Massachusetts ought always to be in the van of educational movements.

MIDDLESEX COUNTY TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION.—The next semiannual meeting of the Middlesex County Teachers' Association will be held in Lowell, on Friday and Saturday succeeding the annual Fast.

Besides discussions on various topics of educational interest, lectures are expected from John J. Ladd, Esq., of Woburn, Geo. N. Bigelow, Esq., of Framingham, and O. S. Knapp, Esq., of Somerville. Teachers, and all interested, are cordially invited to attend.

DANIEL MANSFIELD, *Pres. Mid. Co. T. Assoc.*

Mr. L. Z. FERRIS, a graduate of Dartmouth College, has been appointed Principal of the Boys' High School in Gloucester, in place of Mr. J. S. Chamberlain, who has resigned.

HENRY CUMMINGS, Esq., has been re-elected Superintendent of the Public Schools in Gloucester.

Miss M. A. COGSWELL, late Principal of the Rockport High School, has been appointed Principal of the Girls' High School in Gloucester, in place of Mr. R. E. Babson, who has resigned.

RUSSIA.—The Emperor of Russia having ordered an investigation to be made into the situation of the schoolmasters throughout the other parts of the empire, and having ascertained that they were very badly off, has just ordered that their salaries be increased, and that other measures for improving their condition shall be adopted.

Reviews and Book Notices.

A TREATISE ON ARITHMETIC, combining *Analysis and Synthesis*, adapted to the *Best Mode of Instruction in Common Schools and Academies*. By James S. Eaton, M. A., Instructor in Phillips Academy, Andover, and President of the Essex County Teachers' Association. Boston: Brown, Taggard & Chase. 1857. pp. 355.

The author of this work has had a long and successful experience in teaching mathematics in the Phillips Academy. It were therefore but reasonable to expect that he would prepare an arithmetical treatise of more than ordinary merit. A thorough examination of Mr. Eaton's Arithmetic has presented the following as its chief characteristics: It contains nothing superfluous. The statement of propositions, the expla-

nation, and the rules, are at once concise, clear, and exact. The problems given seem well adapted to illustrate the principles of arithmetic.

We recommend this work to teachers as one which richly merits a careful examination.

A GRAMMAR OF THE LATIN LANGUAGE, for the use of Schools and Colleges, by E. A. Andrews and S. Stoddard. Revised Edition. Boston: Crocker & Brewster. 1857.

More than twenty years having elapsed since the first publication of this Grammar, it is quite unnecessary to speak of its original plan, or of its general character. When first issued, it was far in advance of the manuals for elementary classical instruction then in use, and it was at once received with general favor by the ablest and best teachers in the country. It has stood the test of criticism, and the severer test of protracted and general use in the class-room of the school and the college. No respectable scholar will now venture to question its superior merits. We doubt not that this revised and enlarged edition of the work will be cordially welcomed by teachers and students of the Latin language. It is stated by Dr. Andrews, in his Preface to this edition, that "two years of continuous labor have been devoted to its revision, and to the purpose of rendering it conformable, in all respects, to the advanced position which it originally aspired to occupy," and that, in the modifications which he has made, he aimed to accomplish these two purposes, "to preserve, as far as possible, the identity of the work, and, at the same time, to bring it as near to the present state of philological science as should be practicable."

The deservedly high reputation of the learned author for exact and profound philological knowledge is a sufficient guaranty that the task proposed has been ably and successfully executed. While important additions and modifications have been introduced, the teacher already familiar with the former editions will be pleased to find that the sections and subdivisions of sections have been retained in this, though the enlargement rendered a change of pages necessary.

A NEW MATHEMATICAL JOURNAL.—We take peculiar pleasure in announcing that a new journal, to be called the Mathematical Monthly, will, in all probability, be soon issued by Mr. J. D. Runkle, of the Nautical Almanac Office, Cambridge, Mass. The main object of this journal will be "the elevation of the standard of mathematical learning" in this country. It will be addressed to all grades of mathematical students and teachers. Besides the ordinary problems and solutions, it will include "Notes and Queries," Essays, Discussions, &c., on all branches of pure and applied mathematics. A marked feature will be the attention given to the wants of learners, in answer to queries, in explanation of difficulties, and in new developments of important theorems. A fuller notice of this undertaking, so important to teachers, will be given hereafter.

☞ We have received quite a number of school reports from various towns in the State, which are hereby gratefully acknowledged. We should be glad to receive also any items of educational interest which our friends may see fit to forward to us, such as changes of teachers, new school buildings, and improvements in apparatus and methods of teaching.

Several communications have been received during the past month, which are necessarily deferred to the next number.

BOOKS RECEIVED.

THE MASSACHUSETTS REGISTER for the year 1858, by Adams, Sampson & Co., 91 Washington Street, Boston.

PENNSYLVANIA COMMON SCHOOLS; Annual Report for 1857.

ANNUAL REPORT of the Public Schools in Maine. 1857.

VRAIE PROSODIE FRANCAISE, par V. Value. Philadelphia: 1858.

THE ATLANTIC MONTHLY for April.